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FRONT COVER

Rhodesian Tobacco Worker

Rhodesian woman carries tobacco leaf from the barn in which it has been cured. Like most wives of native workers who contract to "see a tobacco crop through," she works alongside her husband. (Photo by John Rau; copyright by Rhodesia Tobacco Association.)

BACK COVER

Map Showing the Federation of The Rhodesias and Nyasaland

From the southeastern corner of Africa—in the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland—comes some of the United States' keenest competition in the world flue-cured tobacco market. A recent visitor to the Federation tells on pages 218-222 how flue-cured tobacco is produced there.

NEWS NOTES

Foreign Surplus Disposal Program Regulations Announced

The U. S. Department of Agriculture has announced regulations containing the procedures and requirements applicable to commercial sales of surplus agricultural commodities under Title I of the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954 (Public Law 480, 83rd Congress).

The regulations set out the steps to be taken by foreign governments, foreign importers, U. S. exporters, and U. S. banking institutions wishing to participate in the program.

Title I of Public Law 480 authorizes the Commodity Credit Corporation to incur costs totaling $700 million, including the Corporation's investment in commodities out of its own stocks, in financing the sale of surplus agricultural commodities for foreign currencies.

Copies of the regulations may be obtained from the Trade Programs Division, Foreign Agricultural Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C.

The first step in making such sales is the formulation of an overall agreement between the U. S. Government and an importing country. Such agreements have been under negotiation and are now at the point of being entered into with several importing countries.

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FOREIGN AGRICULTURE ALICE FRAY NELSON, EDITOR

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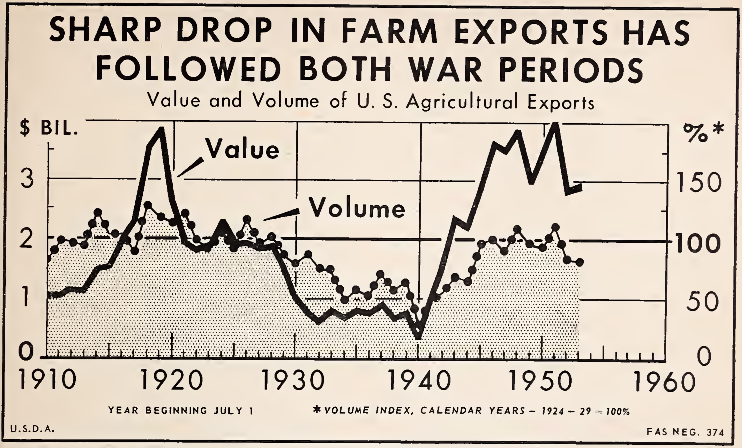
SHARP DROP IN FARM EXPORTS HAS FOLLOWED BOTH WAR PERIODS

Value and Volume of U. S. Agricultural Exports

Prospects for Agricultural Exports*

by W. G. LODWICK

The prospect for United States agricultural exports this year is fairly hopeful. It is possible that we can increase our agricultural exports by 10 percent above the value of 1953-54. If we are successful in doing so, this will be the second straight year of gradually rising exports, for this past year they improved by 4 percent over the low postwar level of $2.8 billion in 1952-53.

If our exports do increase to such an extent, it will seem that for the present, at least, the declining trend in our agricultural exports has been reversed. By no means can we count on healthier foreign markets to provide the total cure for our surplus problem—but to the extent that our foreign markets hold steady or keep on improving, our total marketing position will gain that much strength.

The most hopeful prospect for expanding overseas sales appears to be in cotton and tobacco. We think there will be some gains in export of wheat, grain sorghums, barley, and rice. We will continue to export fats, oils, and oilseeds in heavy volume. As for fruit, there should be some increase. For dairy and meat exports, as well as corn, not much change is in sight, although some plans are contemplated that may alter the picture.

In order to get today's agricultural export situation into perspective, I think we may begin by comparing today's level of exports with the level following the First World War. Our foreign markets are holding up fairly well. In 1919 our agricultural exports went over the $4 billion mark. But just 2 years later, in 1921, the bottom fell out and our farm exports were down to $2 billion. After temporary improvement, they kept on going down through the 1930's, and reached a low point of less

Mr. Lodwick is Administrator, FAS.

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*Statement at 32d Annual Agricultural Outlook Conference, Washington, D. C., October 25, 1954.

than half a billion dollars in 1940, the first year of the Second World War. On a volume basis, our present agricultural exports are comparable to those of the late 1920's.

We can skip rather rapidly over the period of 1940 to 1950. This was not a true marketing period. We fed our troops, we helped feed our allies, and we helped out with postwar reconstruction—but we were not marketing in the normal commercial sense. In 1948-49, for example, 60 percent of our agricultural exports were paid for by our foreign aid programs.

Since 1950, our agricultural exports more and more have had to stand on their own feet. Last year, by contrast, only 12 percent of our farm exports were paid for by our foreign assistance programs. It speaks well for the improving economic level of our foreign customers that our overseas markets are holding up as well as they are. At least, we have not suffered a degree of setback like that following the First World War. Gold and dollar reserves have been growing, so that they are less of a restrictive influence. The general economic situation is more sound than it was in the 1920's.

We all are inclined, of course, to think back with some nostalgia on the 1951-52 year when our farm exports went up to $4.1 billion. But that was abnormal. A lot of the extra buying was scare buying, resulting from the war in Korea. That is one kind of buying that none of us wants. The following year was unusual, too, when our exports dropped by 31 percent to a total of $2.8 billion. That drop was due mainly to overstocked foreign inventories, restored farm output in producing countries, and generally favorable weather. Now our exports are in a slow, steady climb back up. This past year, they gained 4 percent, for a total of $2.9 billion. A gain of 10 percent additional this year would put them up to $3.2 billion. I think we have every reason to aim at a peacetime level of agricultural exports above this figure. In view of the world's need and our own ability to produce, such a level of agricultural exports is a very rational target and one that can be supported not only by our own producers but equally by the world's consumers.

Our own population is growing rapidly. As we go along, the home market may provide at least some of the eventual solution to our surplus problem. But we cannot depend on that. For the present, at least, despite the growing self-sufficiency of many importing countries, there is actual foreign need for much of our production that is above domestic requirements, and we, in turn, need that foreign market. The big question that we face is how we can successfully distribute our excess production to the world's customers in view of existing hindrances to trade. It will be a real test of our trading abilities to see whether we can maintain a healthy volume of farm exports and do it in the old-fashioned way of doing business.

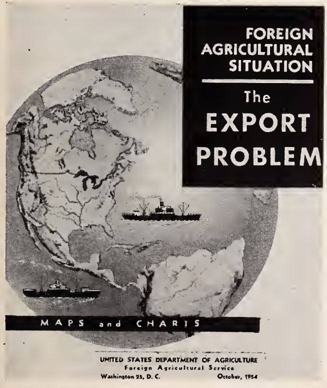
It is not that any one of us is against charity. Charity has its essential place in human relationships, and I think that we are all strong supporters of the Red Cross, the Community Chest, and similar public-spirited organizations. We recognize the value of the aid given the free world since the war in helping it get back on its feet. Except in emergency situations, however, we all place our greatest reliance on private channels of distribution. People the world over like to earn honest wages, they like to select what they get, and they like to pay for what they get. The donated food parcel can never replace the groceries purchased at the corner market.

Our thinking on foreign agricultural trade has had to go through quite a reorientation this past year or two in order to arrive at the realistic commercial approach we are now trying to take. We have needed to get back to some basic principles of marketing and do some long-term thinking, in order to build substantial trade relationships for the years ahead. Today we are moving strongly in that direction. I think there is growing recognition of this need—in agriculture, in Government, and in the trade. We are finally recognizing that we have returned to an era where quality, price, salesmanship, ingenuity, and hard work are demanded if we are to compete successfully with other world suppliers and meet the needs of the world's consumers.

It is hard to say which of these essential factors we should place first, but we do know that in the world of business, quality and price cannot be overlooked. The factors that move merchandise here at home also move our farm commodities overseas.

Our prices in some cases have been out of line with competitive world prices. In this respect, Government action can be helpful—but there is no Government substitute for a good salesman with an order book in his pocket. Nevertheless, through Government export programs along with the flexible price support program, we are trying to move toward a more competitive price position.

As to the attractiveness of the farm products we offer, that is where agricultural producers and the trade can do the most. As good Americans, we are somewhat inclined to think that ours is the best. Unfortunately, however, American farm products do not always merit a favorable reputation among foreign buyers. Too often we fail to produce the type of product most desired abroad. Too often a product of good quality when it leaves our farms will have been downgraded to minimum acceptability by the time it leaves our shores. We in Government are not policemen of export attractiveness, and there are few laws on our books that establish export quality standards. But our private agricultural trade can—and I think for its own self-interest should—become its own watchman. The level of our future agricultural exports is going to depend on the quality and acceptability of the commodities that we offer to foreign buyers.


FOREIGN AGRICULTURAL SITUATION

The EXPORT PROBLEM

MAPS and CHARTS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
Foreign Agricultural Service
Washington 25, D. C.
October, 1954

This is the cover page on Foreign Agricultural Service's newly released publication, "Foreign Agricultural Situation — the Export Problem." The publication shows in 68 pages of maps, charts, cartoons, and tables the drop in our farm exports during the past 2 years and its significance to the American farmer. Copies may be purchased for 40¢ from the U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

This is a challenge in which the assistance of the State colleges is greatly needed. I think they have an outstanding opportunity to help shape the course of our agricultural exports by contributing to this little-touched field of foreign market acceptability. For example, when we offer wheat to a foreign buyer and he says it does not suit his purpose, perhaps this indicates that we should grow some other variety. I don't want to confine the illustration to wheat—it pertains to other commodities as well. We take it for granted that there are strong and precise buyer preferences here in the United States, and we try to meet them. In this new and competitive era of foreign marketing, where the buyer's market prevails, we must accept the fact that there are exacting buyer preferences overseas as well as at home. Today's buyers are in a position to pick and choose.

In my opinion, this return to commercial competition in our foreign marketing is all to the good. We are getting back to fundamentals, and also we are entering an era when Government and trade must learn to work together in meeting these export problems. We in Government have no intention of becoming merchants. The buying, selling, and handling of agricultural commodities is the legitimate established function of private trade. We have no desire to take over that job. But there are various ways in which we can render special assistance. I would like to review them because I think they are important to our export outlook.

One of these services to agricultural trade is our foreign reporting and contact work. Very few American exporters can afford to have their own men stationed around the world in key importing areas. Through the facilities of the Department of Agriculture, however, they are able to keep continuously in touch with developments in the foreign field. We in the Foreign Agricultural Service receive communications from our overseas representatives at the rate of some 225 every working day, and this information on foreign production, marketing, and trade situations is passed along to exporters and others needing it.

Also, we send marketing specialists on special foreign studies to look into sales opportunities, and their findings are reported similarly. Since September 1, the agricultural attaches—who in recent years have been employees of the Department of State—

once more are employees of the Department of Agriculture. This means—for purposes of agricultural trade intelligence, commercial contacts, and general market development—a straight line of communication into some 40 foreign countries.

All this gives our agricultural trade a basis for informed business dealing that for most exporters would be impossible had they to rely entirely on their own resources. To some extent, our improving of these services should contribute to the level of our future exports.

Also, the Government has its various export programs. These are programs that help export commodities under circumstances unfavorable to regular commercial marketing. In most instances, such programs look to private trade for the actual handling of commodities involved, with Government expediting the transactions. Methods of expediting include export payments, acceptance of foreign currencies, and to some extent, relief donations. Such programs today do not account for the major part of our total agricultural exports, but they too are an important factor in the outlook picture.

One of these aids is the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954, Public Law 480 of the 83d Congress. This act authorizes sale of commodities under certain circumstances in return for foreign currencies. Foreign Agricultural Service administers Title I of the act, and is making good progress in contacts with foreign countries that in the months ahead should lead to substantial sales.

Another part of the same act authorizes use of $300 million of our surpluses for urgent relief requirements in foreign areas. This is administered by the Foreign Operations Administration. Under another authority (Public Law 665, 83d Cong.), FOA also has authority for using $350 million or more of its funds to finance the sale of surpluses for foreign currencies.

These programs are important to countries that want our commodities and can pay with their own money but are short of dollars. They open up new opportunities in such areas because they help get around the convertibility problem.

And now, one final observation regarding what Government can do to assist exports, and that involves the problem of trade barriers. Last spring our Agricultural Trade Missions made studies in Europe, Asia, and Latin America. When these men, who were largely agricultural businessmen, returned and wrote their report, they noted no less than 13 separate and distinct problems that our farm products face in entering today's world market. Many of those problems—such as bilateral trading, selective use of dollars, state trading, and protectionism—are thought of as outside the scope of normal business. The more that we get into trade problems such as these, however, the more it becomes apparent that not only Government but all of us have a great and joint responsibility in their solution. We recognize the need of protecting our own agricultural market from certain kinds of foreign competition, and we are doing it because our domestic market is our big market and we know that it must be preserved. When we see a foreign country setting up similar protection for its own home market, we need to recognize that they're playing by the same rules. We can work at persuading countries to lower their trade barriers, and we intend to work at it hard. It is discouraging for our exporters to try to do business in a world where multiple prices, bilateral dealing, discriminatory quotas, and state trading have become the rule rather than the exception. In the long run, however, I suspect that it will not be our Government's negotiations that help us get over these barriers as much as our success in offering products that meet our foreign customers' specific needs and that are attractive in price and quality. When we as a Nation learn to do a more effective job of marketing, many of the barriers that trouble us now will become of less consequence. There's a lot to Emerson's adage about the better mousetrap bringing the world to your door.

In conclusion, I want to pay my respects to our highly informative outlook meetings. From the viewpoint of the average foreign country, our Annual Outlook Conference is a unique, almost mystical, occasion, in which we review the past and endeavor to look into the future. I hope that I may throw in this one cautionary note. Today we believe that our agricultural exports can improve during this year by 10 percent or more—but let us not take that "prediction" to mean "predestination." By no means is it predestined that our exports will continue on the upgrade. What does happen will depend on what a whole lot of us are able to do. There is an excellent prospect of our exports continuing upward, but they will do it to the extent that agriculture, private trade, and Government are able to stand behind them and push.

U. S. Tree Nuts—Gifts from Abroad

Of all the tree nuts grown in the United States, only the pecan and the hickory are native North Americans. All the others—filberts, English walnuts, almonds, and chestnuts—bear the mark of foreign influence: they are either immigrants from other lands or foreign relatives of our own varieties.

Pecans

Until 30 years ago, the pecan grew only on the North American continent, where even now it would be a United States monopoly did not Mexico have some ancient trees just south of the Rio Grande.

At least 400 years ago the pecan was important in the American diet. The Spaniard Cabeza de Vaca, when a slave of the Indians between 1528 and 1543 in the Texas coastal area, observed that during the 2 months of the year when other food was lacking his masters lived entirely on ground nuts mixed with small grain. Although he uses the Spanish word for "walnut," it is the pecan he describes.

By the late 1700's, this Indian nut was well known at its northern limit, in Illinois. It had even found its way to England, as a botanical curiosity. It may have reached France, too, if Thomas Jefferson succeeded in his efforts to have "paccan nuts" sent to him in Paris. It was he who gave the first accurate botanical description of the pecan, although he assigned it to the walnuts instead of the hickories. Jefferson's own pecan grove at Monticello thrived, but apparently neither this nor other eastern seaboard plantings ever bore fruit.

In the last 50 years, the pecans that early explorers described as "like bullets" and "hardly larger than the thumb-tip" have been transformed into the magnificent, sweet, thin-shelled nuts we have today. As more and more farmers discover their value, these improved pecans are displacing those borne by wild seedlings.

One factor has limited pecan culture here and prevented it in most other countries—the tree's need for a long hot growing season. Healthy trees have grown north of the natural range, but have generally borne no fruit. In the 1920's, however, a wild Iowa pecan did bear good nuts; and one Minnesota tree of this origin has been producing small but good crops. This may become a valuable new variety for our north and for other countries.

Filberts, which these Turkish women are picking, are one of the important tree nuts that have come to us from abroad.

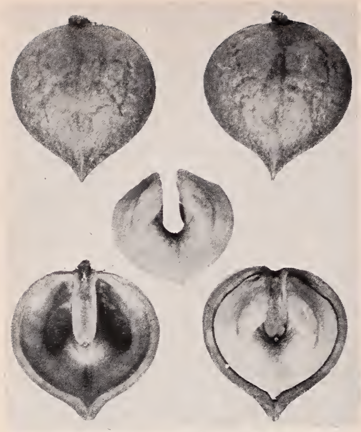
Hickorynuts

We cannot claim the hickory as native only to the United States, for fossils show that hickory species were once widespread in Europe and Asia. But in Europe the hickories were all destroyed by the last Ice Age, and in Asia only one variety survived.

Like the black walnut and the wild hazelnut, the hickorynut is good to eat but hard to crack. The tree is a slow grower, but it can be grafted on the faster growing pecan to speed improvement. And, since horticulturists have transformed the wild pecan into the modern papershell, there is certainly some chance for the hickorynut.

Filberts

The history of the filbert (or hazel) goes back to Homer's day at least—that rod of Circe's was a hazel twig. But all over Europe the tree has a long history too. "Filbert" may come from "full beard" (meaning the tree's spring catkins or the long husk of the nut), or from St. Philibert, whose day fell



The heartnut, a kind of walnut that comes from Japan, is not yet widely grown in the United States.

in the nutting season. The filbert's other English name, hazel (like the German, Swedish, and Danish names), reflects the special magic the tree was believed to possess, since in Anglo-Saxon *haesel* means "to give orders." The hazel's commanding powers were invoked by the burning of its nuts on pagan altars to help priests forecast coming events, and by the use of its twigs to divine the presence of water, minerals, and even lost treasure.

Most of us know and relish the small hard-shelled nuts of our wild hazel trees. Early settlers brought large thin-shelled filberts from Europe, but these and later plantings succumbed to frost, fungus, and the hot American summers. Not until the late 1800's did the filbert find a home here, when Felix Gillet, a French nurseryman, established some European varieties in California. Gillet's seedlings, sold to growers in Oregon and Washington, were the foundation of our filbert industry. For in the Pacific Northwest the filbert has found moderate weather all year round.

It is said that the ideal filbert tree should be like our wild hazel—hardy in most climates, blight-resistant, bushy rather than treelike, and able to reproduce by shoots or suckers. But its nuts should be like the European filbert—large, sweet, and easy to crack. Efforts to create this ideal filbert have been going on for more than 100 years. Promising hybrids, with good qualities from both parents, are extending the filbert's range. And experiments with northern European varieties may bring forth new United States varieties, fully at home in our east and north.

Walnuts

The culture of the Persian (English) walnut is almost immemorial. The Persians may have bought it from early Chinese traders. The Greeks took it to Rome; there it was *Juglans* or *Jovis glans* (Jove's nut). The Romans carried it with them all over Europe; it has turned up in excavations of their villas in England, and walnuts growing today in the Carpathian Mountains may trace their origins to the time when Walachia was an outpost of the dying Roman empire. The very name of the walnut stamps it as a foreigner. All over northern Europe the word is related to the Anglo-Saxon *wealhnutu* ("a foreign nut—Celtic, not Anglo-Saxon"):

Foreign or not, the Persian walnut (*Juglans regia*) has been cultivated in England since at least 1562. Just when it reached the United States we do not know. But it found the eastern black walnut (*Juglans nigra*) here before it. Hence the colonists used the term "English" for the newcomer, much as the Saxons had used "Celtic" for the same nut.

The Persian walnut was not hardy enough for eastern winters, however. Not until 1867 did this immigrant take a foothold, when Joseph Sexton planted some nuts from Chile in Santa Barbara, California, and founded the famous line of Santa Barbara softshells. Some of those grandfather trees are still bearing, and seedlings are still being sold. Later the old French varieties Franquette and Mayette were introduced by Felix Gillet, the same French nurseryman who brought the European filbert over. These new varieties did well in Oregon and Washington also, and the Franquette eventually became one of the major United States varieties.

Still, however, we had no Persian walnut sturdy enough to withstand a cold winter. But several eastern European walnut types give promise of a solution to this problem—for example, the Crath Carpathian from Poland (brought here in the 1930's by the Rev. Paul C. Crath of Toronto, Canada) and the Broadview from Odessa, Russia.

An interesting alien member of the walnut clan is the graceful little heartnut. This pretty pointed nut with its delicious heart-shaped kernel and smooth inner skin occurs—rather unpredictably—as a variation of the Japanese walnut (introduced here about 1860 and usually known as *Juglans sieboldiana*). Its attractive qualities could make it popular, except for two facts: Its trees start growth so early that they often lose their nut crops because of frost, and both the heartnut and the Siebold nut are susceptible to "bunch" disease.

Almonds

The almond has been cultivated since antiquity. The Bible calls it by the name of *Shaked,* meaning "hasten," apparently because in Palestine the tree flowers in January. Aaron's rod was taken from an almond tree; and Jews still carry branches of almond blossom to the synagogue on high festival days. The Greek naturalists gave the nut the name—*amygdale*—that has roamed with it in one variation or another through most of the languages of the Mediterranean Basin and elsewhere.

Plantings here in early colonial days failed because the tree still had its ancient habit of early flowering. But in California, somewhat before 1850, the almond had better luck. And in 1878, some supposedly bitter almonds planted there by A. T. Hatch produced seedlings that eventually gave rise to three of the major sweet varieties now being grown—IXL, Ne Plus Ultra, and Nonpareil.

Even in California, however, frost damage is still a problem. Attempts are now being made to obtain later bloom by crossing almonds with certain peach varieties. Almonds are being crossed with apricots, too, in an effort to create a fruit somewhat like the Chinese apricot, whose sweet edible kernels used to be imported duty-free as "apricot seeds" and then sold as "Chinese almonds."

Chestnuts

The chestnut has been known for thousands of years. All the European languages give indications of its steady march around the Mediterranean Basin and north into Germany and the British Isles. From the Armenian *kaskeni* through the Greek *kastanea,* the word moved on to Rome as *castanea.* Then, like so many other words and things, the chestnut followed the Romans all over Europe.

The stately American chestnut tree was a common sight in our early forests. Like the hickory and the black walnut, it grew thickly over large areas; its nuts supported game, and as a timber tree it was first in importance from early colonial times until 1910. But its nuts, though sweet, were too small to be a satisfactory commercial crop. For larger nuts, growers turned to France, Italy, and Spain. In 1773, Jefferson grafted a "French chestnut" on a native tree of his near Monticello. But the major introduction of the European chestnut was made in 1803 by Irénée du Pont. The varieties he brought to Delaware produced large nuts with good flavor, though in their new home the trees were of orchard rather than forest size.

In 1876 the European chestnuts were joined by a newcomer from Japan. This tree, somewhat larger than an apple tree, produced very large nuts of mild flavor but coarse and starchy texture.

Unfortunately, along with some later Japanese trees there apparently came an unwelcome immigrant—the chestnut blight. This scourge, first noted in 1904, attacked all the chestnuts—American, European, and Japanese—and has nearly exterminated the first two. But hope appeared in 1907, when the United States Department of Agriculture introduced the Chinese chestnut. This tree not only was the most blight-resistant of all chestnuts, but produced the best nuts—large like the European ones, sweet like the American ones. Years of experimentation with this chestnut by the Department and by private growers have given rise to four excellent American varieties: Abundance, Kuling, Nanking, and Meiling ("tinglingly beautiful").

Nothing can replace the village blacksmith's spreading chestnut tree in the American landscape. But there are signs of success in experiments at crossing the small, sturdy Chinese tree with the tall, beautiful American one, to produce a new tree satisfactory as to both size and nut crop.

Indeed, for almost all the nuts we eat, we have borrowed characteristics from abroad: In the nuts themselves, improved size, cracking quality, and flavor; in the trees, the ability to withstand disease or adverse weather. And in our turn we have shipped seeds and scions to many countries of Europe and Asia. Our pecans have already taken firm root in Israel and Africa. And now pecans and walnuts are going to Pakistan, filberts to Sweden, new almond varieties to the Mediterranean Basin that gave us the almond, and hickories and blight-resistant chestnuts to all Europe. Thus we may be able to make part payment for what we have received from all over the world.

How Flue-Cured
Is Produced in R

By JAMES W. BIRKHEAD

THE United States tobacco exporter watches with interest the competition that is developing against him in southeastern Africa. There, on the great plantations of a British territory known as the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland, the crops of flue-cured tobacco are getting bigger each year and supplying ever larger segments of such substantial markets as Western Europe and Australia.

Flue-cured tobacco is the very kind of tobacco that the United States sells abroad in greatest quantity, the kind that cigarettes are chiefly made from. Other kinds are grown in the Federation, too—dark fire-cured, dark sun-cured, Burley, and Turkish—but only in quantities that seem small when compared to the flue-cured.

To stimulate tobacco production in this area has been Great Britain's policy for a long time, especially since World War II, when the shortage of dollars has made much of the world eager to buy where dollars aren't required. In only 20 years the crops of flue-cured tobacco in the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland have increased nearly 5 times—from an average of 29 million pounds a year in 1935-39 to more than 131 million pounds in 1954. The Federation sells more than 90 percent of its crop abroad and now is second only to the United States as an exporter.

About 90 percent of the Federation's flue-cured tobacco is grown in Southern Rhodesia. Most of the growers there are white immigrants from either England or the Union of South Africa. Those that came from England are chiefly from urban areas; and even those that came from farms had never grown tobacco before. All have encountered the difficulties common to underdeveloped areas—lack of roads, housing, and schools; and presence of pests and diseases such as tsetse flies, ticks, and malaria. Already these conditions have been much improved, but pests and diseases still restrain or prohibit development in some areas. Many of the immigrants have settled in areas of high elevation, where they have found the climate most conducive to health and comfort.

Average yield per acre of flue-cured tobacco in Rhodesia is low, as is the quality of the product.

Teams of oxen still pull plows and culti

Both, however, are improving, though climate, particularly in the high areas, limits improvement to some extent. Recent experiments indicate that yields can be increased substantially and economically by using more fertilizer and following other improved practices.

In the 1953-54 crop, the two leading varieties of flue-cured tobacco in Southern Rhodesia were Hicks and White-Stem Orinoco. Of secondary importance were Delcrest, Bonanza, and Jamaica Wrapper, each of which accounted for about the same amount of tobacco. All these varieties naturally respond to Rhodesia's soil and climate by exhibiting characteristics materially different from those they had in the countries of their origin. A vigorous testing and breeding program is under way to obtain varieties that will yield a high proportion of bodied leaf suitable for the United Kingdom markets.

Plantations are large. Compared to the United States tobacco farmer, the average Rhodesian operates on a big scale. In the 1953-54 season 2,627 Southern Rhodesian growers handled 172,500 acres

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Mr. Birkhead is Acting Chief, Foreign Competition Branch, Tobacco Division, FAS.

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esia

The author has recently returned from a trip through Africa, where he studied the ways and means of tobacco production, not only in the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland, but in the Union of South Africa, British East Africa, Madagascar, Mozambique, and the Belgian Congo.

ny tobacco farms of Southern Rhodesia.

of flue-cured tobacco, averaging 66 acres each.

The typical farm where tobacco is grown contains about 2,400 acres. About one-third of it is arable land with perhaps 500 acres cleared and 300 acres still under brush or trees; one-half of it is rocky ground, steep slopes, or other land not readily cultivable; and the remaining one-sixth is swamp or marshland. Approximately 70 acres is in tobacco, 70 acres in corn, and 70 acres in other crops exclusive of pasture. The average farm has about 100 head of cattle.

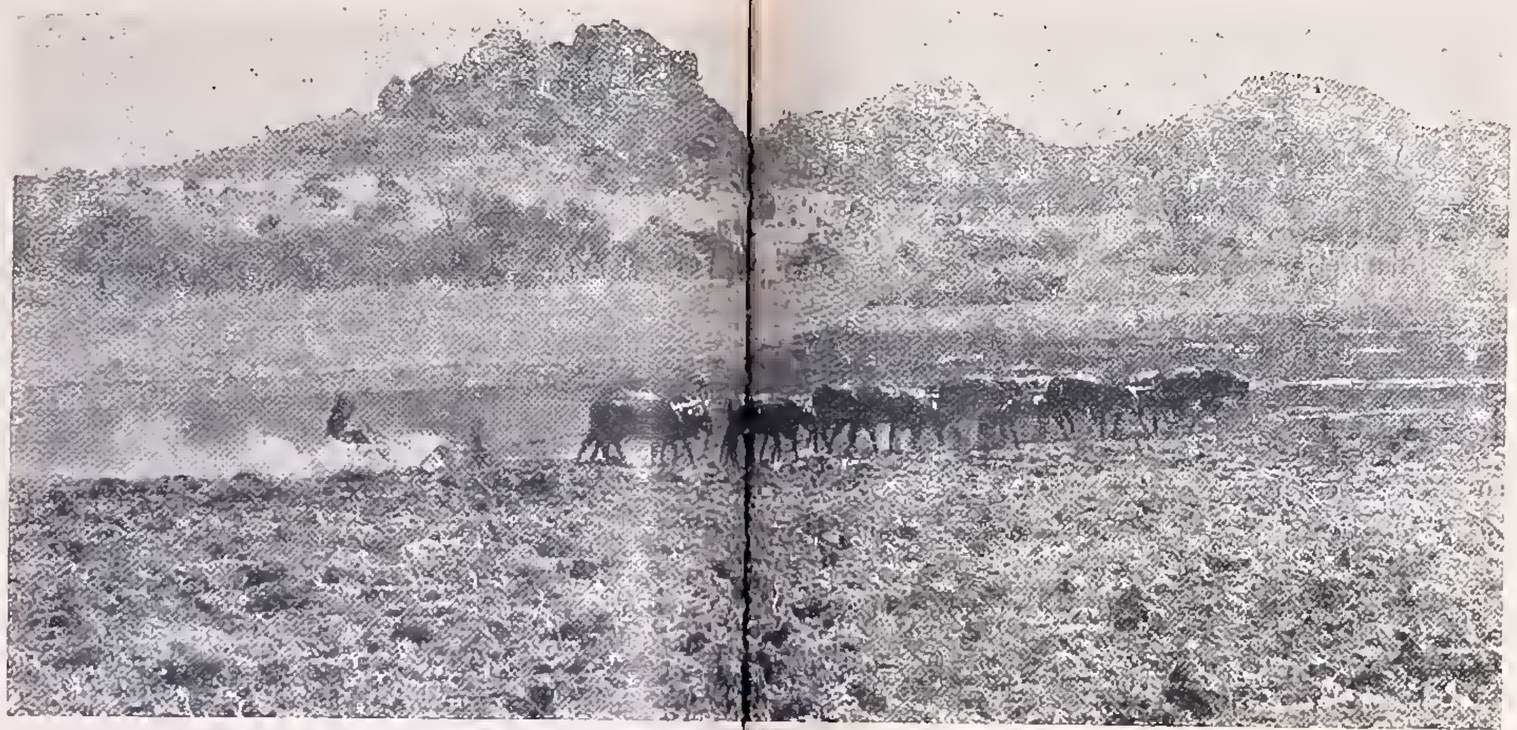
In the most important flue-cured-tobacco area in Southern Rhodesia nearly all the rain falls between November and March. The usual pattern is as follows:

Month	*Inches*	*Month*	*Inches*
November	4	February	7
December	7	March	4
January	8	Rest of year	3

Rhodesian farmers turn under the tobacco stalks left after the harvest, in order to control diseases and pests. The Tobacco Marketing Board sets a deadline for this operation, and farmers must comply in order to be eligible for reregistration as growers.

How Flue-Cured obacco Is Produced in Rhesia

By JAMES W. BIRKHEAD


Teams of oxen still pull plows and culti many tobacco farms of Southern Rhodesia.

THE United States tobacco exporter watches with interest the competition that is developing against him in southeastern Africa. There, on the great plantations of a British territory known as the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland, the crops of flue-cured tobacco are getting bigger each year and supplying ever larger segments of such substantial markets as Western Europe and Australia.

Flue-cured tobacco is the very kind of tobacco that the United States sells abroad in greatest quantity, the kind that cigarettes are chiefly made from. Other kinds are grown in the Federation, too—dark fire-cured, dark sun-cured, Burley, and Turkish—but only in quantities that seem small when compared to the flue-cured.

To stimulate tobacco production in this area has been Great Britain's policy for a long time, especially since World War II, when the shortage of dollars has made much of the world eager to buy where dollars aren't required. In only 20 years the crops of flue-cured tobacco in the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland have increased nearly 5 times—from an average of 29 million pounds a year in 1935-39 to more than 131 million pounds in 1954. The Federation sells more than 90 percent of its crop abroad and now is second only to the United States as an exporter.

About 90 percent of the Federation's flue-cured tobacco is grown in Southern Rhodesia. Most of the growers there are white immigrants from either England or the Union of South Africa. Those that came from England are chiefly from urban areas; and even those that came from farms had never grown tobacco before. All have encountered the difficulties common to underdeveloped areas—lack of roads, housing, and schools, and presence of pests and diseases such as tsetse flies, ticks, and malaria. Already these conditions have been much improved, but pests and diseases still restrain or prohibit development in some areas. Many of the immigrants have settled in areas of high elevation, where they have found the climate most conducive to health and comfort.

Average yield per acre of flue-cured tobacco in Rhodesia is low, as is the quality of the product. Both, however, are improving, though climate, particularly in the high areas, limits improvement to some extent. Recent experiments indicate that yields can be increased substantially and economically by using more fertilizer and following other improved practices.

In the 1953-54 crop, the two leading varieties of flue-cured tobacco in Southern Rhodesia were Hicks and White-Stem Orinoco. Of secondary importance were Delcrest, Bonanza, and Jamaica Wrapper, each of which accounted for about the same amount of tobacco. All these varieties naturally respond to Rhodesia's soil and climate by exhibiting characteristics materially different from those they had in the countries of their origin. A vigorous testing and breeding program is under way to obtain varieties that will yield a high proportion of bodied leaf suitable for the United Kingdom markets.

The author has recently returned from a trip through Africa, where he studied the ways and means of tobacco production, not only in the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland, but in the Union of South Africa, British East Africa, Madagascar, Mozambique, and the Belgian Congo.

Plantations are large. Compared to the United States tobacco farmer, the average Rhodesian operates on a big scale. In the 1953-54 season 2,627 Southern Rhodesian growers handled 172,500 acres of flue-cured tobacco, averaging 66 acres each.

The typical farm where tobacco is grown contains about 2,400 acres. About one-third of it is arable land with perhaps 500 acres cleared and 300 acres still under brush or trees; one-half of it is rocky ground, steep slopes, or other land not readily cultivable; and the remaining one-sixth is swamp or marshland. Approximately 70 acres is in tobacco, 70 acres in corn, and 70 acres in other crops exclusive of pasture. The average farm has about 100 head of cattle.

In the most important flue-cured-tobacco area in Southern Rhodesia nearly all the rain falls between November and March. The usual pattern is as follows:

Month	*Inches*	*Month*	*Inches*
November	4	February	7
December	7	March	4
January	8	Rest of year	3

Rhodesian farmers turn under the tobacco stalks left after the harvest, in order to control diseases and pests. The Tobacco Marketing Board sets a deadline for this operation, and farmers must comply in order to be eligible for reregistration as growers.

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Tobacco seedbeds in Southern Rhodesia are covered with grass until the plants begin to come up; then the grass is removed and cloth is substituted. Not many Rhodesian tobacco farmers water their seedbeds with overhead sprays as this farmer does, but that method of irrigation is gaining in popularity.

Since there is practically no rain from mid-April to mid-October, the tobacco is planted in seedbeds, beginning in August, and is watered, usually by hand, until the seedlings are large enough to be transplanted. On many farms the transplanting is staggered over a fairly long period, beginning in October and extending sometimes into December. Thus the weather risk is reduced and the harvest is spread over a long period; the latter is an advantage because it makes possible an even use of labor and barn space.

If rain does not fall soon after the seedlings are transplanted, many of them die and must be replaced, even though they have been watered. In fact, replanting is not unusual even during the rainy season, a circumstance that some farmers ascribe to native workers for not transplanting properly in the first place.

Only a little fertilizer is now being applied, but use of it is increasing rather rapidly. Much research is being done to determine the best mixture for each major soil type. Side dressing by hand is a fairly common practice; compost is used on some farms and is commonly placed by hand around each plant after transplanting.

The draft power used in preparing the land, cultivating, and harvesting is an interesting combination of the old and the new—of oxen and tractors.

The harvesting period usually extends from mid-February until early April. Leaf is carried from the fields to the curing barns, where it is tied on sticks and left to hang in tiers until the curing process is finished.

On a typical farm the curing barns are arranged in two units, or buildings—four barns to a building, separated from each other by brick walls. Each of the 8 barns is 16 feet wide, 16 feet long, and 8 tiers high. Brick is used for construction throughout, for wood is scarce and quickly destroyed by termites; but construction is not expensive. The bricks, made only of sand, preferably from the great ant hills, are usually burned right on the plantation, either by the hired hands or by migratory crews who do custom work, and cost only $5 or $6 per thousand. No cement is used to hold the bricks together.

The cheapest fuel for the tobacco curing is wood if it is available on the farm, but many farmers do not have wood and some have resorted to coal. Shortage of railroad transportation, however, has made coal supplies uncertain and is causing a rapid shift to use of oil.

When the leaf has been cured it is transferred to the grading shed. Now the leaf is brought "into order," or conditioned, by adding moisture to the air, either by means of steam blowers or by sprinkling the floor with water. This conditioning is necessary because usually no rain falls from the time the leaf is harvested until after marketing is completed. Some grading sheds have cellars in which the leaf is conditioned.

Grading, like transplanting, is a job that is not often done satisfactorily in Southern Rhodesia. The workers are uneducated and poorly paid, and many do not know the importance of careful, uniform grading. The native women and older children assist the men in this peak labor operation. The women sit on the grading-shed floors, sorting and tying the leaf while they chat with each other or nurse their babies, seemingly paying little attention to their work. At present European supervisors are universally employed, but even so results are not gratifying. In a grading shed with 1 to 4 European and 100 native workers, an average of only about 3,000 pounds of leaf per day—30 pounds per worker—is handled. Payment at a piece rate

Production of tobacco in the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland, by kind, 5-year averages 1935-39 and 1947-51, annual 1953 and 1954

(In thousands of pounds)

Country and period	Flue-cured	Dark fire-cured	Dark sun-cured	Turkish	Burley	Total
Southern Rhodesia:						
5-year average:						
1935-39	24,623	862	—	665	—	26,150
1947-51	82,145	913	—	1,445	—	84,503
Annual:						
1953	105,148	368	—	150	—	105,666
1954[1]	119,439	560	—	250	—	120,249
Northern Rhodesia:						
5-year average:						
1935-39	1,715	—	[2]45	10	[3]	1,770
1947-51	4,473	—	74	391	205	5,143
Annual:						
1953	10,324	—	20	30	120	10,494
1954[1]	8,000	—	[3]	100	105	8,205
Nyasaland:						
5-year average:						
1935-39	2,267	12,149	[4]1,335	—	[5]	15,751
1947-51	2,697	20,976	3,929	—	1,025	28,627
Annual:						
1953	3,568	23,838	6,270	—	1,673	35,349
1954[1]	3,910	23,326	3,285	—	1,933	32,454
Total Federation:						
5-year period:						
1935-39	28,605	13,011	1,380	675	—	43,671
1947-51	89,315	21,889	4,003	1,836	1,230	118,273
Annual:						
1953	119,040	24,206	6,290	180	1,793	151,509
1954[1]	131,349	23,886	3,285	350	2,038	160,908

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Average for 1937-39 only.
[3] Not available.
[4] Includes Burley.
[5] Included in sun-cured before 1946.

Tobacco curing barns in Southern Rhodesia are built of burnt brick, generally in blocks of four. Wood fires are used to heat this one, but some are heated with coal and an increasing number are being heated with oil.

improves the performance, but close supervision is required. However, the native workers are adept at understanding foreign languages, and many of them quickly learn to do an effective job if the work is carefully explained.

A considerable amount of leaf is commercially graded, but to have it done so is expensive. Current rates are 4 to 4½ pence—4.6 to 5 U.S. cents—per pound, including the baling.

The plantation grading sheds are equipped with screw presses, most of them hand-operated, for baling the graded leaf. Bales are wrapped with waterproof paper and burlap, to keep the leaf in condition during the dry marketing season, and are shipped to Salisbury for sale at one of two modern auction warehouses. On the auction floor one side of each bale is opened to permit buyers to inspect the contents.

Except for the clerks, most of the marketing staff at the auction warehouses, particularly the auctioneers and floor managers, are Americans. By their accents many of them reveal themselves as having come from North or South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, or Kentucky. But lately the number from the United Kingdom has been increasing, and now there are even a few British auctioneers.

Many countries buy flue-cured tobacco from Rhodesia, but the chief purchasers are Great Britain and Australia, followed by the Netherlands, Denmark, West Germany, Sweden, and the Belgian Congo. In the last few years Great Britain has taken between 60 and 65 percent of the exports and Australia has taken between 8 and 8½ percent. Expansion of exports to these two countries has been accomplished partly through preferential import duties—the British import duty on leaf from Commonwealth areas is 21.6 U. S. cents less per pound than it is on leaf from non-Commonwealth areas—and partly by 5-year purchase agreements between these countries and the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland.

The Federation is further encouraged to increase production by other favorable factors—large areas of soil adapted to tobacco production, for instance, and an ample labor supply. Besides, its research program is expanding and improving, and its producers are becoming more experienced. Although the Federation still must cope with such problems as the uneven rainfall, lack of trained workers and managers, and prevalence of disease, it is likely to continue to increase its production of flue-cured tobacco.

Bales of flue-cured tobacco await sale on one of the two auction floors of Salisbury, Southern Rhodesia. From these two floors, 120 million pounds of flue-cured tobacco is sold during a season—March through September.

Stimulating Foreign Trade*

By HOMER L. BRINKLEY

Against a background of what has been happening around the world in the past few years to affect the marketing of farm products, Mr. Brinkley draws the conclusion that "now is the time for the adoption of greater export sales and promotion programs by agriculture" and sets forth in some detail "the hard and painful methods" by which such programs can be made effective:

"We must use the facilities of commercial credit, and, where trading through governments is involved, the facilities of the Export-Import Bank to extend longer credits in order to meet trade competition.

"We must, it seems, be thinking seriously about more competitive pricing, and be guided in our production, to a greater extent, by market signals and incentives rather than by government edict.

"There is evidence of serious deficiency in our methods of insuring the quality of our goods on arrival at foreign ports. To build trade, exporters in agricultural commodities must lean over backward to be sure that foreign importers get as good as or better than they specify.

"We must maximize the use and opportunities of private industry in foreign trade even though for some time we must lean on the various aids established by our government.

"It is apparent that many underdeveloped areas of the world must for the time being rely principally on the exportation of raw materials. It would certainly seem to be logical to exchange many of our farm commodities that are perishable and involve high storage costs for strategic materials which are nonperishable and can be cheaply stored.

"Many countries could make more productive use of our farm commodities than they could of our dollars in various foreign aid programs; possibilities in this direction should be examined.

"We need to intensify research on foreign market development and consumer preference in foreign countries; our farmers and agricultural traders must see that these preferences are respected and satisfied and particularly what improved preferences and expanded demands can be developed.

Mr. Brinkley is Executive Vice-President, National Council of Farmer Cooperatives.

"Instead of promising more and more tariff reductions we should, in turn, urge on prospective sellers of goods from other countries to us, that similar research be done in our market preferences and ways and means of meeting legitimate competition in this country. We have done many countries a grave disservice in constantly harping officially on tariff adjustments as the key to our markets, rather than concentrating on the necessity for exploring and meeting market needs by modern methods of production and marketing. As a result, too many have waited to see what *we* were going to do to put *their* products on *our* markets.

"In certain countries of the world, industry is characterized, and has been for generations, by a philosophy geared to low wages, protected markets, and high per unit profits. In contrast, our own economy has been built upon the foundation principle that the best market for the products we make is the people who make them, and we have developed over the years low per unit costs, low per unit profits, high wages, maximum competition, and maximum consumption. By no stretch of the imagination can a foreign competitor, using antiquated methods of production and distribution, hope to match modern competitive methods developed in mass-production enterprises of this country, by tariff tinkering and preferences. More than that, we cannot afford to allow our economy to be reduced to the lowest common denominator of all the countries which trade with us. Rather, we must help raise the level of their economy closer to ours.

"At the very top of the list of the kind of aid we might extend, in our own enlightened self-interest, to foreign countries, is that of private capital investment—particularly in the underdeveloped areas. In these areas, characterized by low productivity and low individual consumer power based on a "one industry economy," usually confined to primary or raw materials, there has been little or no opportunity to develop the great ameliorating middle class, such as we have in this country, having the capacity to accumulate savings and thus establish a broad diversified economy able to develop the economic potential of the country and of its people and resources and extend its benefits. As a result, there has been little or no comprehension of the benefits to be accrued from private capital investment, and this, in turn, has led to increasing reliance on government when capital is required. This then tends to create the socialistic chain of government capital, government marketing and distribution, government control, and even government production in some degree, and the liquidation of the middle economic classes. We would suggest, therefore, that those seriously concerned with the problems of international economic development and trade, examine more closely the politico-economic aspects of private investment and its proper use. Programs of self-help based on sound incentives and proper national interests and potentials would go far to belie the charge of economic colonialism that many countries fear may replace the political colonialism from which they have so recently emerged.

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*From an address before the Graduate School, U. S. Department of Agriculture, October 6, 1954.

"Coupled with private investment of necessity will be the export of management and production know-how, and training of workers and supervisors in technical skills and marketing.

"This will involve far more activity on the part of our own appropriate government departments and of industry itself, in promoting the kind of indigenous management knowledge and understanding conducive to the use of risk capital, both domestic and foreign, and in explaining the kind of economic climate necessary both to attract and expand its use. Particular emphasis should be laid on the necessity for internal protection by the importing country of capital invested rather than too much dependence on insurance or guarantees by our own country. Exchange of information and the necessary research into incentives that might attract risk capital should be explored jointly. Programs of such nature should be sharply defined as to their nonmilitary character and objectives.

"Our own internal tax structure should be adjusted so as to provide proper and sound tax benefits and incentives to investors from this country to meet the needs for investment in foreign development. While these should not be so attractive as to drain our own country of needed capital funds, the situation in the receiving country should be such as to encourage and promote retention of earnings to induce and promote the orderly expansion of investment by the plow-back system that has characterized our expanding economy.

"It would seem also that, rather than relying on the General Agreement on Trade and Tariff (GATT), there might well be established a different approach. GATT appears to have been more concerned with haggling over the vehicles of trade restriction than with attempting to promote more trade and a sound balance by methods other than tariff tinkering. Its further usefulness is in grave doubt, unless certain fundamental defects can be corrected.

"The regulation and control of United States foreign trade is vested in the Congress by the Constitution and should remain there. As a proper vehicle for a sound, broadly comprehensive approach to our foreign economic problems, we suggest the formation of a Foreign Economic Board. After establishing policies governing foreign economic relations (and we think sound economic relations would quickly lead to sound political relations), the routine administration of our foreign economic policy should then be delegated to such a board. This organization should be made up of the Secretaries of State, Treasury, Commerce, Agriculture, and Labor, and the Chairmen of the U. S. Tariff Commission and the Federal Reserve Board, the President of the Export-Import Bank, and the American Director of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Representatives of private finance, manufacturing, distribution, agriculture, and labor, chosen for their interest in and knowledge of foreign trade and investment, should also be included. Instead of haggling over the barter of economic or political favors, the sound approach for such a board would be to negotiate and direct treaties of investment, commerce, navigation, and friendship, country by country on a quid pro quo basis, including various phases of fundamental economic policy such as investment, currency convertibility, internal monetary policy, and interrelated aspects. The multilateral aspects, which are important, should then be extended likewise on the basis of quid pro quo concessions of equitable and substantial nature, not merely on paper. Its objectives should be to foster and promote equilibrium in the economic development of friendly nations as a basis for balanced trade relations with the United States and among themselves. The result would be to promote economic exchange and trade of products as a factor therein, and the importance of such factors as quotas, escape procedures, exchange regulations, fees and duties, and preferential treatment would fade as progress is made in establishing a sound economic base for worldwide production and trade. Foreign trade always flourishes among prosperous nations, else they would not be so.

"Among the more pressing needs of our country is a scientific approach on a research basis into the problems, and the reasons why they are problems, of international trade. Upon such findings we can then begin to build solid solutions.

"Among other pressing needs we should find some method by which we can put to a painful death the rash of slogans recently so prominent in trade discussions. Slogans such as "trade not aid"—"we have to buy if we expect to sell"—"trade is a two-way street"—are all meaningless except as byproducts of a healthy world economy and they well may obscure the need for the kind of hard and painful methods by which they may be achieved, and also the inescapable fact which must eventually become obvious—namely, that the job is not ours alone."

The consumer of butter, like the Mad Hatter in* Alice in Wonderland, *naturally prefers "the* best *butter," and is likely to buy the brands he has come to know as top quality. The author describes the challenge this fact poses to United States dairy exporters.

"The *Best* Butter"

by D. R. STROBEL

United States exporters of butter may well consider something that European exporters have learned: that setting a single high standard for their product and selling it consistently under a single national brand goes far in giving it prestige and winning it a place in world markets.

That the United States has much to profit from improving its export techniques is indicated by the erroneous opinion widely held abroad that the United States does not manufacture good butter. Last summer, when I was traveling around Western Europe to learn as much as I could about the dairy products manufactured and used there, I heard that opinion expressed everywhere, but most strongly in the United Kingdom, which is the principal butter importer in the world.

Now, United States butter, Grades AA and A, is as fine a butter as any of the top-grade butters I tasted anywhere on my trip; but we must convince foreign buyers and their customers of this fact. Unfortunately, the only Federal requirement for United States butter is that it contain at least 80 percent fat. Absence of other requirements seems to have made our butter suspect: for instance, since Western European countries specify a maximum moisture content for export butter and the United States does not, the belief is common in those countries that the average United States butter contains as much as 18 percent moisture. True, with an 80-percent fat content, it is possible for our butter to have that much moisture, but it isn't likely—in fact, it isn't even possible if the butter has the average curd content of 0.8 percent and the average salt content of 2.2 percent.

To put an end to unfavorable reports abroad about United States butter, we will have to develop high export standards and then ship out only the butter that meets those standards, marking it all with the same distinguishing label. Only so can we establish the facts about our own good butter and make it a product that can hold its own.

It is by such practices that Western European

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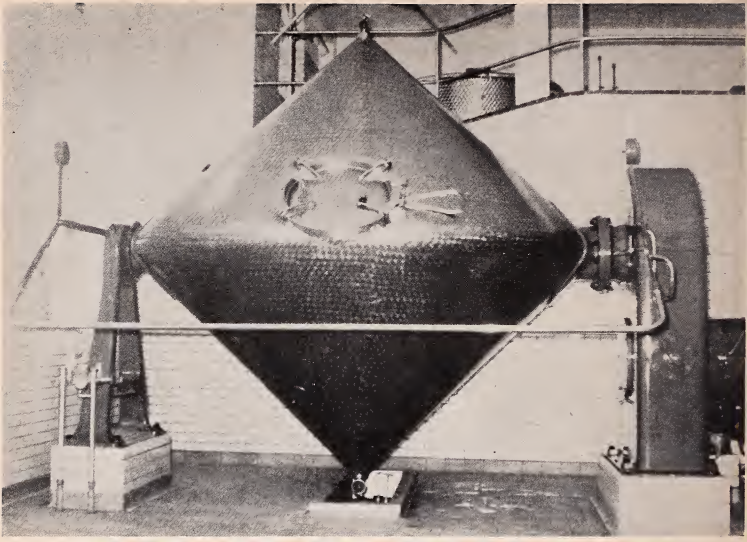

This stainless steel churn used in Denmark has an overhead water spray that controls churn temperature.

countries are already establishing their butters in the world market. Many of those butters differ from each other in fat and salt content and in flavor characteristics, but most of them are exported under excellent grading standards, which are applied by government or by industry under government supervision, and are strictly enforced.

Denmark, for instance, exports its butter under the Lur brand; packages must bear this name and the quality mark associated with it. The butter must be made from pasteurized cream, must contain at least 80 percent fat, no more than 16 percent moisture, and about 0.8 percent salt. In addition it must receive at least 9 points out of a possible 15 for such characteristics as flavor, body, and color. It may contain no preservative other than salt. Each plant authorized to use the export brand must submit samples weekly to the government grading station. Danish butter is highly cultured; as much as 6 to 8 percent of culture is added to the cream, and the ripening period is as long as 24 hours. As a result, the butter tends to have an acid flavor. It is all made from factory-separated cream, and that which I tasted was free from the flavor defects associated with United States butters made from farm-separated cream, i.e., Grade B and poorer. But the Danish butter I observed seemed slightly softer in body than our butter.

In the Netherlands, a major exporter of dairy products, standards are applied by the industry under the supervision of the Ministry of Agriculture. All exported butter is marked "export quality" and carries a distinctive mark. It must contain at least 80 percent fat and no more than 16 percent moisture, and also must meet certain other requirements. Dutch butter, which is made from factory-separated cream, is unsalted and lightly cultured; that which I tasted was of high quality but, because it lacks salt, would not be acceptable in most United States markets.

Sweden requires its export butter to carry the Rune brand, with a distinctive mark; Norway permits use of the Four-Leaf Clover brand. Export standards of both countries require butter to be made from pasteurized cream and to contain no more than 16 percent moisture, to be free from synthetic dyes, and to have no other material added except salt. Besides, Swedish butter must have 8 points out of a possible 12 for such characteristics as taste, texture, distribution of salt, and color; Norwegian butter must have 10 out of a possible 15. Swedish butter may have as much as 1½ percent salt; Norwegian, as much as 1 percent. In both countries, plants are required to submit samples for analysis to government dairy laboratories. Neither Swedish nor Norwegian butter is highly cultured; in flavor and other characteristics both are quite similar to top United States grades.

Belgium and France, though traditionally importers of butter, are both increasing their production and planning for exports. The Belgian Government has established a mark for use on exports; and the French Government is in the process of developing export standards. The Belgian butter is unsalted and cultured; the French butter may be salted. The products I observed in these two countries were not comparable with United States Grades AA or A in flavor, body, or texture. French butter is made from both factory- and farm-separated cream; that made from the farm-separated cream is comparable with United States Grade B.

Switzerland, also a traditional importer of butter, is nevertheless increasing production close to the point of self-sufficiency. Quality standards have been developed by the Butyra, a semi-official butter-control agency. The Floralp brand may be carried by butter made from pasteurized cream with a certain fat content; the butter itself must contain no more than 15.5 percent moisture and no less than 83.5 percent fat; and it must have a minimum of 18.5 points out of a possible 20 for taste and aroma, texture, and color (it must have at least 11 for taste alone). Swiss butter is mildly cultured; about 3 percent starter is added to the cream. The butter I tasted was of high quality but had a weaker body than United States butter.

Such careful devotion to standards should pay off. Danish and Dutch butters, for instance, have found a substantial place on the United Kingdom market, along with such major suppliers as Australia and New Zealand. On this market, United States butter has not appeared in the last 30 years, but in this very fact lies a challenge to our exporters.

Assistant Secretary of Agriculture Earl L. Butz on:

Our Farm Surpluses and Our Population Growth

"Agricultural exports are, of course, important as long as we have supplies available in excess of our own requirements. Our big market is now and must always be right here at home, where we have a still growing economy and a population continuing to increase at a rate that surprises even the experts. Right now our agriculture is burdened by large stocks of certain commodities . . . and a level of production in excess of immediate requirements. But from a longer range standpoint, we may indeed consider ourselves fortunate to have such a great productive capacity. What a blessing that our problem is one of surplus rather than famine!

"It is quite probable that in the not-distant future the production potential of our farms may be outstripped by domestic requirements. . . . Within the next two decades this country's population may well be increased by 40 million people. This would place our total population above 200 million by 1975.

"In terms of food and fiber, this means a steadily expanding market—a market whose demands will require a far greater total volume of output than our agriculture is turning out today. We will need sharp increases in production of most farm products, especially meat, milk, poultry and eggs, and most fruits and vegetables. From what we can now see before us it is apparent that while we are wrestling with our present problem of farm surpluses, we must at the same time safeguard our great productive capacity and encourage the adjustments that will enable American agriculture to meet the expanded needs that lie ahead.

"The extent to which American agriculture can successfully meet the challenge ahead depends in good part on how well our marketing system can provide the means and the incentives required for the effective movement of agricultural products from our farms to our consumers. This will be a job calling for the highest type of leadership and imagination in what someone has recently described as 'The Lost Art of Selling'." (Excerpts from address before the Washington Seminar on Marketing, sponsored by the Washington Chapter of the American Marketing Association, September 30, 1954.)

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